

1 Integration of InSAR and GPR Techniques for Monitoring Transition Areas in Railway

2 Bridges

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11 Highlights

- 12 • Differential settlements at the bridge-infrastructure transition zone are demanding in terms of maintenance required.
- 13 • An integrated approach combining ground penetrating radar and satellite interferometry is proposed to provide a more
14 comprehensive assessment of differential settlements.
- 15 • A case study on a real railway bridge is presented.

16

17 Abstract

18 This paper reports the integration of the Ground Penetrating Radar (GPR) and the Interferometric Synthetic Aperture Radar (InSAR)
19 techniques for the monitoring of the rail-abutment transition area in railway bridges. To this purpose, an experimental campaign was
20 conducted on a rail truss bridge located in Puglia, Southern Italy. On one hand, GPR was used to obtain structural details of the
21 subsurface (thickness of the ballasted layer, position of the sleepers, presence of clay/humidity spots) and to identify potential
22 construction-related issues. Parallel to this, InSAR analyses were mainly addressed to monitor subsidence at the rail-abutment
23 transition area. Outcomes of this investigation outlined presence of subsidence at both the areas of transition and have proven the
24 proposed integrated approach as viable to achieve a more comprehensive assessment of the structural integrity of railway bridges.

25

26 **Keywords** – Ground Penetrating Radar, GPR, Interferometric Synthetic Aperture Radar, InSAR, Permanent Scatterers, PS-InSAR,
27 Data Fusion, Railway Monitoring, Transport Infrastructure Maintenance

29 **1. Introduction**

30 *1.1 Background*

31 Development of new assessment strategies for damage characterisation in railway transport
32 infrastructures is crucial to meet satisfactory standards in terms of safety, functionality and resilience
33 over time.

34 Typically, the evaluation of the asset resilience against major natural events (i.e. landslides or
35 earthquakes) or anthropic-related events is conducted separately from the decay monitoring of
36 safety standards and structural aspects of the infrastructure. Furthermore, the severe exposition and
37 vulnerability of railway networks to major adverse events and a few structural collapses affecting
38 transport infrastructures in recent times, have emphasised on the importance of identifying novel
39 and effective health monitoring strategies. It is also worth mentioning that scarcity of funding for
40 maintenance and lack of advanced technologies with a network-level applicability constrain to
41 provide an effective assessment of the infrastructure.

42 Railway systems consist of interconnected infrastructures including bridges, viaducts and tunnels,
43 where single elements not working at full capacity can affect the functionality of the entire system.

44 Within this context, it is worth noting that a growing number of bridges all over the world have been
45 classified as structurally deficient in the past two decades [1]. Estimated financial costs for
46 maintenance are very high along with social costs that will be affected by compromising safety
47 standards. To this effect, it is important to remind that maintenance of bridges and their structural
48 components, such as stacks and shoulders, and monitoring of their static and dynamic response is
49 not an easy task. This is due to the amount of variables involved, such as the provision of a proper
50 design, infrastructure usage and working conditions, and degradation of structural materials.

52 *1.2 Track degradation process at bridge-infrastructure transition areas*

53 It is known that a free rail track within its lifetime is subject to settlements caused by the action of
54 soil creeping, traffic conditions and the interaction between soil and water [2]. On the contrary, a
55 more comprehensive and constrained design of foundations in structures such as bridges will make
56 these settlements usually negligible, especially in case of deep foundations. This occurrence results
57 in a differential settlement at the transition area between the bridge structure and the railway
58 infrastructure.

59 Differential settlements require several maintenance actions at the bridge-infrastructure transition
60 zone. As an example, maintenance activities in the Netherlands railway network are three times
61 more frequent in these areas compared to other sections of these infrastructures [3]. This requires
62 more detailed investigations to identify the source of decay. To this effect, factors that are either not
63 active or negligible in the degradation process of free tracks may escalate and cause differential
64 settlements at the transition areas. Uneven distributions of stiffness and damping between the
65 bridge and the approach, geotechnical-related issues, and soil-water interaction are key factors that
66 may trigger a process of track degradation in these areas [2, 4, 5]. This sudden stiffness variation
67 generates an extra dynamic energy within the transition area [6]. In this context, the movement
68 direction of trains critically exacerbates the effects of this occurrence. When a train passes from a
69 higher (i.e., the bridge structure) to a lower (i.e., the approach area) stiffness section, a higher
70 dynamic load is applied to the transition area, thereby causing localised settlements [2, 6]. The
71 expected dynamic load is here twice the amount of the quasi-static load [7] and can cause migration
72 of ballast aggregates and tie movements [8].

73 Special focus on failure modes at the subgrade level is essential to identify potential geotechnical
74 issues in transition areas. It is known that progressive shear failure and excessive plastic settlements
75 are primary failure modes in subgrades [9]. In addition to this, Burrow et al. [10] state that rail track

76 foundation design frameworks require consideration of these two failure modes, especially at the
77 upper layers, where dynamic load is more significant.

78 Metric suction of unsaturated soil is a governing factor to control shear strength and soil deformation
79 [11]. On the contrary, soil metric suction is strongly related to soil moisture, which is highly sensitive
80 to climate changes [12]. Particle size distribution, clay percentage, soil type, soil fabric orientation,
81 and drainage boundary conditions further control metric suction as well as pore water pressure
82 increments caused by dynamic loads [12-14]. In fact, pore-water pressure decreases soil suction as
83 well as the effective shear strength.

84 Within this context, mitigation techniques aim to improve the performance of the main structural
85 components in a transition area i.e., the bridge, the superstructure and the substructure of the
86 approach. These can be sorted into three groups based on their functions, including: *i)* a reduction
87 of the vertical stiffness or an increase of the damping on the bridge, *ii)* smoothening of settlements
88 at the transition area by increasing the bending stiffness of the rail-tie structure at the softer section
89 of the transition, *iii)* smoothening of the track modulus distribution along the bridge transition area
90 [2, 4, 15, 16].

91

92 ***1.3 Statement of the problem***

93 Non-destructive testing (NDT) methods have contributed significantly to improve the productivity
94 and the effectiveness of inspection activities over large railway assets [17]. Nevertheless, a stand-
95 alone application of these techniques can only provide partial condition-based assessment of the
96 infrastructure [18]. Every technique has both advantages and limitations, which are mainly related
97 to aspects such as the spatial resolution, operational productivity and working principles.
98 Accordingly, selecting single NDT equipment can lead to a comprehensive assessment of a
99 particular type of distress and compromising over others [19].

100 Within this context, use of multi-scale information collected with different monitoring techniques
101 (e.g., ground-based NDT methods and satellite remote sensing) under a “data fusion” approach, can
102 represent a practical and novel methodology to overcome gaps and limitations from use of single
103 techniques, leading to an enhanced and more comprehensive assessment of the infrastructure [19,
104 20].

105 To this purpose, a proper selection of available NDT and remote sensing methods for railway
106 monitoring purposes is necessary to achieve full knowledge of the asset conditions at the network
107 level, with special reference to the system resilience towards exogenous and endogenous events.

108 In this paper, a novel approach based on the integration of Ground Penetrating Radar (GPR) and
109 Synthetic Aperture Radar Interferometry (InSAR) inspection techniques is presented, with a special
110 focus on the transition areas between the rail and the bridge abutment in railways. The paper is
111 outlined as follows. In chapter 1, a discussion on the degradation of rail tracks at the bridge-
112 infrastructure transitions areas was given. Chapter 2 discusses aims and objectives of the study. The
113 assessment methods used in this study are described in chapter 3, along with the proposed
114 integrated approach. Chapter 4 presents a case study about the investigation of a real-life railway
115 track with the proposed approach. Results and discussion are presented in chapter 5 and conclusions
116 and future prospects are outlined in chapter 6.

117

118 **2. Aim and Objectives**

119 The main aim of this paper is to investigate the potential of the integration between satellite remote
120 sensing and ground-based non-destructive methods for the effective monitoring of bridge-
121 infrastructure transition areas in heavily-solicited infrastructures.

122 To achieve this aim, the following objectives are identified:

- 123 • to prove the viability of using InSAR and GPR as stand-alone monitoring techniques for the
- 124 identification of surface and subsurface decay, respectively, at bridge-infrastructure
- 125 transition areas in railway bridges;
- 126 • to explore the feasibility of integrating information from multi-source and multi-scale
- 127 datasets and verify benefits of this approach for identification of causes of decay.

128

129

130 3. Assessment Methods

131 A review given by [17] reports the application of various NDT techniques and highlights different

132 performance levels achievable in terms of resolution and productivity (Tab. 1).

133 *Tab. 1 – Non-destructive and remote sensing methods in railway monitoring*

Inspection technique	Information	Reference
Laser-based	Track alignment/Deformation of rails	[21]
Inertial methods	Deformation of rails	[22]
Image Analysis	Rails/ballast degradation	[23]
Acoustic methods	Defects in rails and sleepers	[24]
Ground Penetrating Radar	Subsurface track-bed issues	[25]
Deflectometry	Stiffness of the track-bed	[26]
Satellite interferometry	Subsidence phenomena	[27]
Ground-based interferometry	Stiffness of the track-bed	[28]

134

135 In line with the aforementioned objectives of the research, the working principles and the main

136 characteristics of two inspection techniques, i.e., GPR and InSAR, are presented in this section along

137 with the rationale behind their integration.

138

139 3.1. Ground Penetrating Radar

140 GPR is nowadays recognised as one of the most reliable and efficient geophysical inspection tools
141 for the investigation of the geometric and physical features of the subsurface [29, 30]. This technique
142 works by generating and radiating short electromagnetic pulses within a medium. When the
143 transmitted wave hits a target with different electromagnetic properties, part of the energy reflects
144 back and is recorded by a receiving antenna, and rest of the energy propagates in depth until it gets
145 dissipated. The reflected wave contains information about the electromagnetic properties of the
146 target, whereby indirect information about geometric and physical properties can be extrapolated
147 through the application of dedicated data processing algorithms and filters.

148 In general terms, GPR has proven effectiveness for the monitoring of transport infrastructures, due
149 to a good number of advantages compared to traditional inspection techniques. A wide applicability
150 of GPR has been demonstrated in both road investigations [31-33] and railway investigations [34-
151 38] due to the rapidity of data collection and the availability of a wide range of frequencies, which
152 can provide information with different resolutions and penetration depths [39].

153 Several researches has been reported on successful GPR applications in bridge inspections. These
154 were mainly aimed at assessing the health conditions of concrete and reinforcements in bridge decks
155 using high-frequency antenna systems [40-44]. Within that context, both ground-coupled antennas
156 (i.e. working at contact with the ground) and air-coupled antennas (i.e. working with an offset
157 between the antenna and the ground) were employed. However, despite significant research
158 developments achieved in the last few decades, some drawbacks in the stand-alone use of GPR still
159 exist, which can limit areas of applicability. In fact, GPR is reported to provide a quite advanced
160 assessment of the physical conditions of the inspected elements, whereas subsidence and failures
161 involving the entire structure might be neglected.

162

163 **3.2 Persistent scatterers InSAR**

164 In the last decades, several techniques have been developed for earth surface monitoring purposes
165 in order to exploit space-borne data from both Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) and Multispectral
166 sensors [45-49]. More specifically on civil engineering applications, satellite remote sensing has
167 proven to be effective for transport infrastructure condition assessment. The main benefit of this
168 method is the provision of information on the overall structural stability of the asset and the
169 surrounding environment by analysing a multiple set of SAR image outputs collected at different
170 time periods.

171 However, the implementation of the InSAR technique is generally affected by several different
172 factors, i.e. the signal interference caused by adverse atmospheric conditions, the temporal
173 decorrelation due to the variation of the scattering properties over time and the geometric
174 decorrelation due to the variation of the acquisition geometries arising from the distance between
175 different satellite orbits [50, 51]. These factors affect the accuracy of the analysis. To tackle the
176 problem, various processing techniques have been proposed over time and, among these, the
177 Permanent Scatterers InSAR (PS-InSAR) method [45, 52] is one of the most acknowledged. This
178 technique is based on a statistical analysis of the signals back-scattered from a network of phase-
179 coherent targets, named as Permanent Scatterers (PS). These are defined as points on the ground
180 returning stable signals to the satellite sensor. To this extent, the constant scattering properties of a
181 PS over time and the reflection dominance within a pixel cell are effective in reducing the temporal
182 and geometric decorrelations. In addition, adverse effects given by the atmospheric conditions can
183 be estimated and removed using the series of images collected at different time frames.

184 The development of the PS-InSAR technique has paved the way to a number of applications for the
185 monitoring of linear transport infrastructures [53-57]. Availability of historical series of
186 displacements allows for a more reliable prediction of the trend of deformations for structure and
187 infrastructure systems as well as the surrounding investigated environment. On the contrary, this

188 task is nowadays only partially possible with the available on-field technologies, such as
189 inclinometers, strain gauges and total stations. A main drawback for these pieces of equipment is
190 that they can only provide a documented series of deformations at the time and location point of the
191 instrumentation. Moreover, installation is very demanding in terms of time and human resources
192 required. On the other hand, the InSAR technique allows to monitor the transport infrastructure
193 assets at the network level and does not require on-site installation of any additional equipment.

194 Although the method has proven high capabilities in track displacement diagnostics and wide
195 effectiveness to assist scheduling of maintenance activities, PS-InSAR has not been yet fully
196 implemented as a routine inspection technique for railway infrastructure management purposes. It
197 is the Authors' view that this can be most likely due to the type of information provided, which finds
198 its main scope in the assessment of the geotechnical and structural behaviours of bridges on a long-
199 term base. On the opposite, use of the PS-InSAR technique as a stand-alone diagnostic method
200 cannot provide point information on the conditions of construction materials and performance of a
201 structure/infrastructure at specific sections subject to the application of external loads.

202

203 *3.3 The data integration concept*

204 Despite GPR and PS-InSAR methodologies can both collect a considerable amount of data on the
205 transport asset conditions, outcomes are incomplete if considered singularly, as they are both
206 constrained in evaluating either surface or subsurface conditions.

207 In this research, an integration between GPR and PS-InSAR techniques is proposed to combine
208 flexibility, high-resolution and capability to identify sources of shallow decay of GPR, with the
209 provision of temporal evolution trends of decay at the network level of PS-InSAR [18]. This
210 integrated monitoring approach is expected to increase the reliability of the assessment and

211 contribute to maintain the resistance of the infrastructure to both major external events and internal
212 decay, leading to an extended concept of infrastructure resilience [19, 58-61].

213

214 4. Case Study

215 An experimental activity was conducted to test the suitability of the integration between the above
216 two techniques for the monitoring of bridge-infrastructure transition areas. The area in the vicinity
217 of a railway truss bridge overpassing a motorway was investigated by the PS-InSAR technique,
218 whereas high-frequency GPR systems were used for surveying the track-bed. This research stems
219 from a wider investigation developed over the entire railway network in the municipality of San
220 Severo, Italy [18].

221

222 4.1 The test site

223 A 12-km long stretch of a newly built ballasted railway track was considered for the purpose of this
224 study (Fig. 1a). This track section includes a truss bridge overpassing the “A14” Italian motorway
225 (Fig. 1b).

226

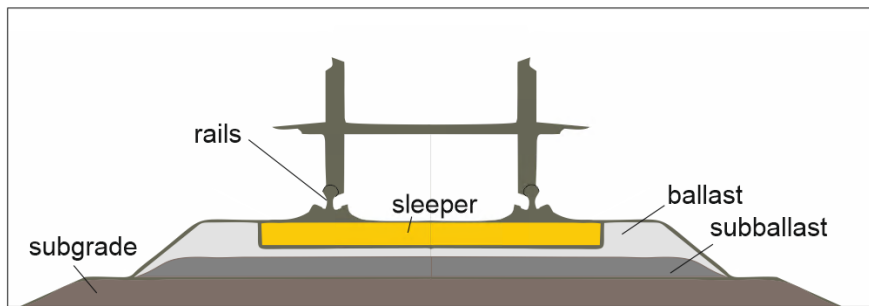


227 Fig. 1 – Geographical framework of the test site (a) and the truss bridge overpassing the “A14” Italian motorway (b)

228

229 The line was inhibited to daily transport service during the tests, thereby allowing for safe and
230 secure surveys.

231 The ballasted railway track under investigation (Fig. 2) was put into service in 2013. It is composed
232 of an average 70 cm-thick limestone ballast layer on which mono-block pre-stressed concrete
233 sleepers are laid. Dry conditions were assumed for the track-bed at the time of the surveys, according
234 to the long-standing dry climate and an average monthly air temperature of 16 °C.



235

236 *Fig. 2 – Cross-section of the investigated rail track-bed*

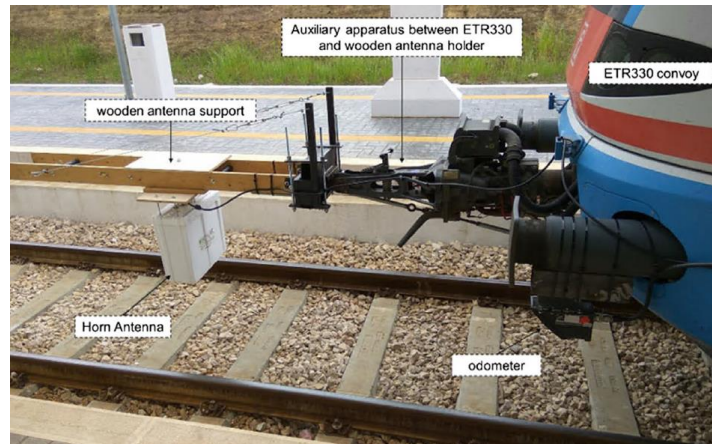
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238

239 **4.2 GPR test equipment and InSAR imagery**

240 GPR surveys were performed using a pulsed system equipped with two horn antennas of 1000 MHz
241 and 2000 MHz central frequencies, manufactured by IDS Georadar (Part of Hexagon) [62]. Antennas
242 were mounted onto a real train convoy and suspended in the air at a height of 45 cm from the ground
243 [63]. Following manufacturer's recommendations, data acquisitions were performed with time
244 windows of 25 ns and 15 ns for the 1000 MHz and the 2000 MHz antennas, respectively. Number of
245 samples per trace were 512 for both the configurations. A horizontal trace step of 5 cm was set for
246 data collection purposes, and controlled by means of a Doppler-based odometer. Auxiliary systems
247 (i.e., a GPS system and high resolution cameras) were employed for testing purposes. Data were

248 collected at an average survey speed of 40 km/h. The connection support for the antennas and all
249 the testing devices were mounted on an ETR 330 convoy (Fig. 3), normally operating on the
250 investigated railway line.



251
252 *Fig. 3 – The GPR test equipment [18]*

253
254 The GPR dataset has been processed according to the following sequential steps [33]:

- 255 • time-zero correction;
- 256 • de-wow;
- 257 • background removal;
- 258 • band-pass filtering (bandwidth equal to 1.5 the nominal frequency);

259
260 In regard to the application of the SAR imagery technique, data were collected in ascending and
261 descending geometries using medium and high spatial resolutions. In more detail, a stack of 44
262 images from Sentinel 1A ("produced from ESA European Space Agency, remote sensing data"),
263 operating in C band, were processed. In addition to this, 56 stripmap images collected in ascending
264 and descending geometries from the COSMO-SkyMed mission (COSMO-SkyMed Product - ©ASI:

265 Italian Space Agency, 2016-2017, All Rights Reserved), operating in X-band, have been processed.

266 Main features of SAR dataset are reported in Tab. 2.

267 *Tab. 2 – Main features of the SAR imagery dataset*

	Sentinel 1A	COSMO-SkyMed
Number of Images	44	56
Reference Period	04/2017–01/2018	03/2016–01/2018
Frequency	5.4 GHz	9.6 GHz
Ground-Range Resolution	5 m	3 m
Azimuth Resolution	20 m	3 m

268

269 These products have been acquired and processed using the PS technique of SARscape
270 Interferometric Stacking Module, integrated in Envi software [64, 65], within the framework of the
271 project “MOBI: Monitoring Bridges and Infrastructures Networks” (proposal ID 52479), approved
272 by the European Space Agency (ESA).

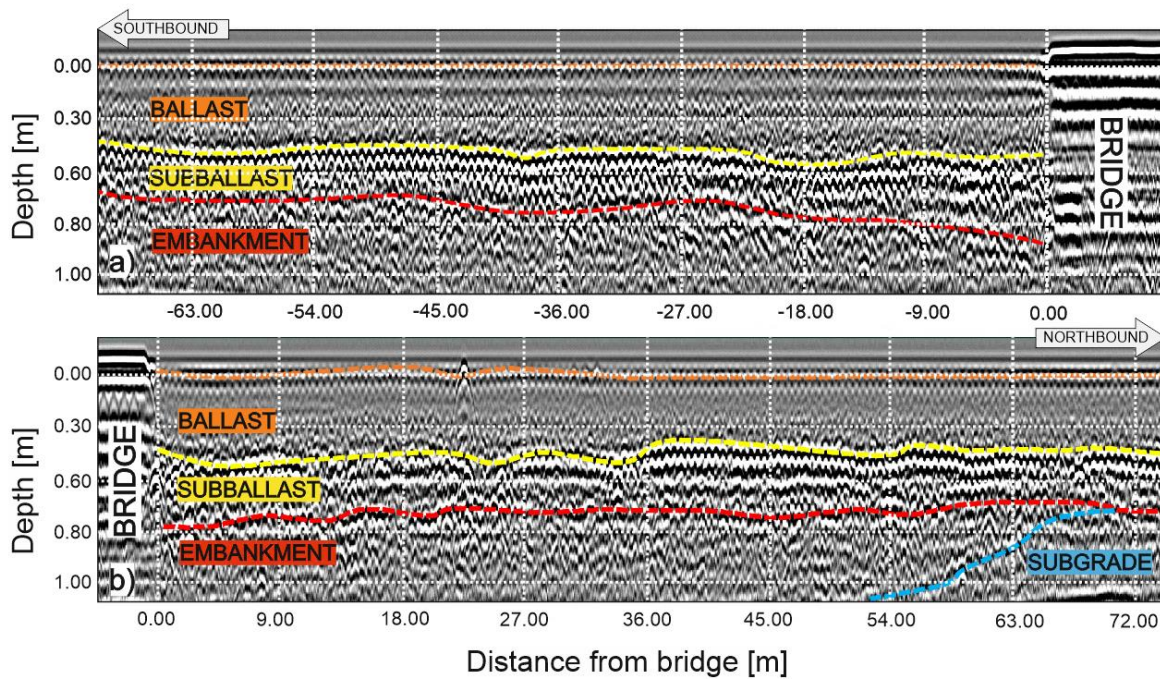
273 The processing algorithm includes the following steps [64-66]:

- 274 • generation of differential interferograms out of the stack of SAR images;
- 275 • selection of candidate PS points;
- 276 • coherence-based filtering of the dataset;
- 277 • phase unwrapping;
- 278 • evaluation of spatial, orbital and atmospheric decorrelations;
- 279 • calculation of deformation time series.

280

281 **5. Results and Discussion**

282 Fig. 4 reports the radarmaps collected with the 1000 MHz horn antenna. The analysis of the GPR
283 datasets has proven the absence of localised geometric issues within the structural configuration of
284 the track-bed system. This was found to be composed of a layer of ballast and a layer of subballast
285 (total thickness of 70 cm) laid over the embankment.



286

287 *Fig. 4 – Radargrams collected before (top) and after (bottom) the rail truss bridge with the 1000 MHz horn antenna system*

288 It is worth noting that the height of the embankment varies according to the geomorphological
289 features of the area. From the available design charts (Fig. 5), the height of the embankment is
290 different at the two approaches of the bridge. Height is constant in the southbound direction,
291 whereas it decreases rapidly moving away from the bridge in the northbound direction. This is also
292 verified by the GPR scans (Fig. 4b), where the depth of the interface between the embankment and
293 the subgrade is observed to decrease between 50 m and 70 m from the bridge.

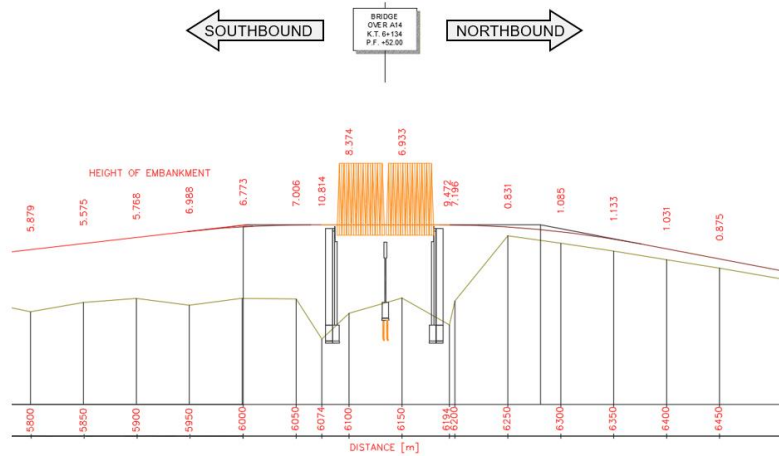


Fig. 5 – Railway vertical alignment showing the height of the embankment in the approaches to the bridge

Analyses of the GPR scans also identified a 10 m-long section at the southbound approach with a higher reflectivity at the subballast-embankment interface, at approximately 25-m distance from the bridge (Fig. 6). This may be related to a higher compaction rate exerted by the cyclic action of dynamic loading on the ballasted layers of the track. To this effect, it is known that the passing convoys may generate stress forces higher than the shear strength between the ballast aggregates, especially at high speeds. This can cause the aggregates to segregate into finer particles and move from their original arrangement. Fine materials produced in this process tend to deposit at the bottom of the load-bearing layers (i.e., at the interface with the embankment) affecting the reflectivity of the dielectric discontinuity represented by the layer interface [38].

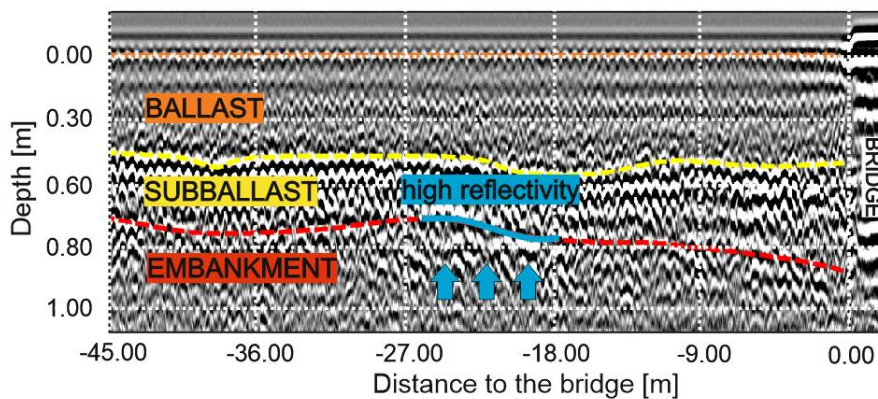


Fig. 6 – Radargram section of the high-reflectivity dielectric discontinuity at the subballast-embankment interface

308

309 In regard to the results obtained by the application of the PS-InSAR technique, several PSs were
310 identified on the railway-track at the location of the truss bridge and its approaches. Outcomes of
311 this processing carried out on the COSMO Sky-Med dataset are reported in Fig. 7.

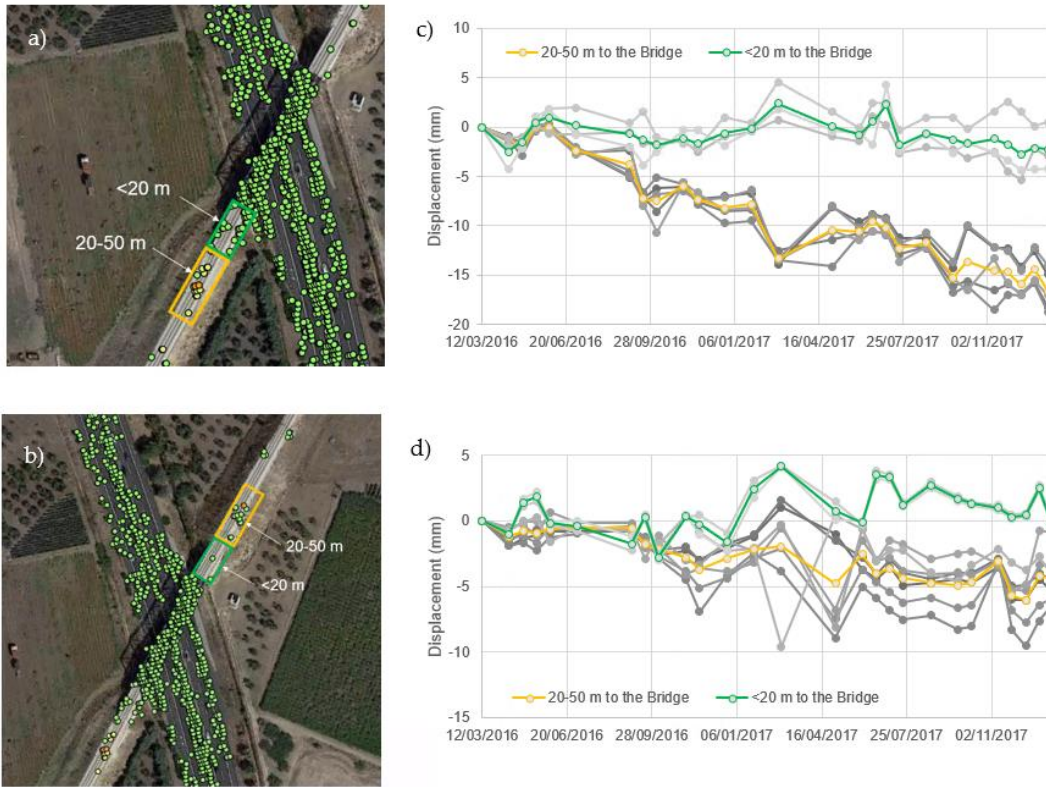


312

313 *Fig. 7 – PS-outcomes from the InSAR analysis carried out on the truss bridge area*

314

315 Several down-lifting PSs were detected at both the southbound and the northbound approaches, as
316 shown in Fig. 8a,b. Two distinct trends were observed by way of comparison between the average
317 trend of displacements of the PSs located in the vicinity of the bridge (i.e., less than 20 m from the
318 bridge, green trend line in Fig. 8c,d) and those observed at a distance between 20 to 50 m (orange
319 trend line in Fig. 8c,d). Grey connectors represent the specific trends of single PSs, whereas green
320 and orange trend lines represent the averaged trends. To this effect, while the former have a quasi-
321 horizontal trend over time with some expected seasonal oscillations, the latter highlights an evident
322 trend of subsidence, especially at the southbound approach to the bridge. In more detail, average
323 deformation rates of 12 mm/year and 4 mm/year in the Line-of-sight direction were observed for the
324 two sections closer to the bridge in the southbound and the northbound approaches, respectively
325 (orange trend lines in Fig. 8c,d). This observation agrees with the outcomes of the GPR surveys
326 discussed previously (Fig. 6).

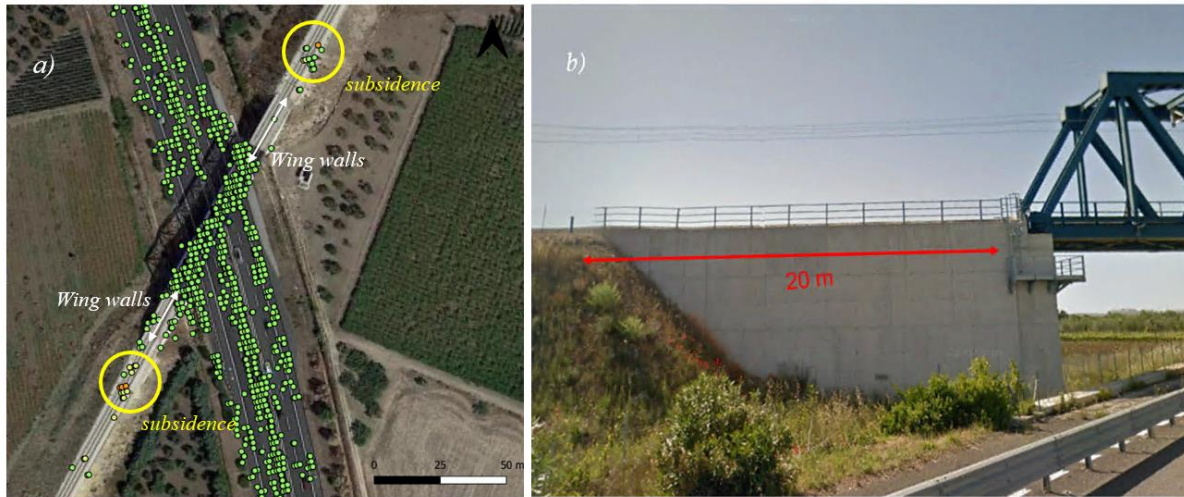


327

328 *Fig. 8 – PS-InSAR analysis of the a) southbound and b) northbound approaches to the bridge, with relevant deformation trend*
 329 *analysis (c, d)*

330

331 It is worth noting that the two areas subject to subsidence are symmetrically located with respect to
 332 the bridge position; more specifically, subsidence is observed at the end section of the abutment
 333 wing walls, as it is shown in Fig. 9. This may imply that lateral retention of the wing walls tends to
 334 increase the shear strength of the deep layers, thereby inhibiting progression of vertical subsidence
 335 in time. To this effect, it was noticed that displacements start to be observed as the effects of this
 336 mechanism attenuate (i.e. beyond the end section of the wing walls).



337

338

Fig. 9 – (a) Evidence of subsidence at the approaches of the bridge by InSAR analysis, (b) wing walls detail

339

It is also worth mentioning that the above occurrence is more pronounced at the southbound approach compared to the northbound approach. This is most likely related to the larger height of the embankment (Fig. 5) and, subsequently, to the higher self-weight of the structure. This inherently exposes the track to a higher risk of settlements, when subject to the action of dynamic loads from the passing convoys.

344

It is important to emphasise that reconstruction of the trackbed features of the superstructure produced by the GPR surveys returned a very regular profile, thereby excluding any potential structural or construction-related cause for the observed settlements. In this sense, the potential of the proposed integrated methodology as a supporting tool for planning effective maintenance interventions is well stressed out.

349

350 **6. Conclusions and Future Prospects**

351

This paper reports the integration of the GPR and the PS-InSAR techniques for the monitoring of the rail-abutment transition area in railway bridges. Results from the experimental campaign carried out on a rail truss bridge highlighted the presence of subsidence spots at the approaches of the bridge. GPR surveys allowed to verify the regularity of the structure at both the approaches, thereby

354

355 allowing to exclude potential construction-related issues. Further to this, a section of the railway at
356 one specific approach (i.e. the southbound approach) with a high-reflectivity area at the deeper
357 layers was identified by GPR. A possible explanation to this occurrence was related to the higher
358 compaction rate of the ballasted layers due to the contribution of a higher dynamic loading exerted
359 by the trains and the larger height of the embankment at that section. Parallel to this, the PS-InSAR
360 analysis has proven this section to be affected by an anomalous subsidence process. To a lesser
361 extent, this was also verified at a symmetrical distance from the bridge centerline section, on the
362 other approach (i.e. the northbound approach). Settlements were mostly located at the end of the
363 wing walls of the abutment, due to potential higher effects of the dynamic loads where the retaining
364 action of the wing walls terminates.

365 To conclude, the implementation of the two systems in this case study has proven successful and it
366 has paved the way for further investigations in similar scenarios (i.e., bridge-infrastructure
367 transition areas in heavily-solicited infrastructures) to confirm the outcomes of this research. Within
368 this context, InSAR could be applied to preliminary identify areas of concern at the network level,
369 whereas GPR could be used to detect effectively decay sources. The approach could find potential
370 application in the future within the context of providing a more effective prioritisation of
371 interventions in railway maintenance programs.

372

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